# REMOTE POINTS IN $\beta$ R AND P-POINTS IN $\beta R-R$ 

## by

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## ABSTRACT

We are going to study the remote points in $\beta R$ and the $P$-points in $\beta R-R$. A remote point in $\beta R$ is a point which is not in the $\beta R$ chosure of any discrete subset of $R$. A point $P \in \beta R-R$ is a P-point of $\beta R \sim R$ if every $G_{\delta}$-set containing $p$ is a neighbourhood of $p$.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER I : Preliminaries : 1

CHAPTER II : $\beta$-subalgebras 8

CHAPTER III : The A-points of $\beta \mathrm{X}-\mathrm{X} \quad 15$

CHAPTER IV : Remote points in $\beta$ R 21

CHAPTER V : Prime ideal structure and remote points 28

BIBLIOGRAPHY , 37

As we know, every completely regular space $X$ has a compactification $\beta X$ such that every function $f$ in $C^{*}(X)$ has an extension to a function $f^{\beta}$ in $C(\beta X)$ : This thesis is devoted to study the papers [1], [3], [4], [5].

In chapter II, we study the class of subalgebras of $C(X)$ called $\beta$-subalgebras. With each $\beta$-subalgebra $A$ of $C(X)$, we define A-points in $\beta X-X$. Then we study the $A$-points in chapter III. In chapter IV, we turn our attention to the remote points in $\beta R$. Finally, we study the prime ideal structure of $C(X)$.

## CHAPTER I

## PRELIMINARIES

Throughout this thesis, all given spaces are assumed to be completely regular and Hausdorff. $C(X)$ will denote the collection of all real-valued continuous functions on $X$, and $C^{*}(X)$ will denote the subcollection of bounded functions. Under the pointwise operation, $C(X)$ and $C^{*}(X)$ are commutative rings with identity. All ideals in $C(X)$ or $C^{*}(X)$, unmodified, will always mean proper ideals. If $S$ is a set, then $|S|$ will denote the cardinality of $S$. As is standard, let $c$ denote the cardinality $2^{x_{0}}$ of the continuum. Furthermore, we assume the continuum hypothesis ( $c=\mathbb{K}_{1}$ ). If $S \subset X$, then $C 1_{x} S$, int $X_{X} S$, $\partial_{x} S$ will denote, respectively, the closure, interior and boundary of $S$ in $X$. If $f$ is a function, then we let $f^{<-}$ denote the inverse map.

Definition (1.1) For $f \varepsilon C(X), Z(f)=f^{<-}(0)=\{x \varepsilon X: \quad f(x)=0\}$ is called a zero set in $X$ while $X-Z(f)$ is called a cozero set in $X$. The family $Z[C(X)]$ of all zero sets in $X$ will be denoted by $Z(X)$.

Remark (1.2)
(1) The family $Z(X)$ of all zero sets is a base for the closed sets.
(2) $f$ is a unit of $C(X)$ if and only if $Z(f)=\phi$
(3) Every zero set is a $G_{\delta}$ set.

Definition (1.3) Two subsets $A$ and $B$ of $X$ are said to be completely separated in $X$ if there exists a function $f \in C^{*}(X)$ such that $0 \leq f \leq 1$. $f[A]=\{0\}, f[B]=\{1\}$.

Definition (1.4) A subspace $S$ of $X$ is said to be C-embedded in $X$ if every function in $C(S)$ can be extended to a function in $C(X)$. $S$ is $C^{*}$-embedded in $X$ if every function in $C^{*}(S)$ can be extend to a function in $C^{*}(x)$.

Definition (1.5) A non-empty family $F$ of $Z(X)$ is called a z-filter on X provided that
(a) $\quad \phi \notin F$
(b) if $Z(f), Z(g) \in F$, then $Z(f) \cap Z(g) \varepsilon F$
(c) if $Z(f) \varepsilon F, Z(g) \varepsilon Z(X)$ and $Z(f) \subset Z(g)$, then $Z(g) \varepsilon F$.

If in addition, $F$ is not contained in any other z-filter, then $F$ is called a z-ultrafilter on $X$.

## Theorem (1.6)

(a) If $I$ is an ideal [resp. maximal ideal] in $C(X)$, then $Z[I]=\{Z(f): f \in I\}$ is a z-filter [resp, z-ultrafilter] on X .
(b) If $F$ is a z-filter [resp. z-ultrafilter] on $X$, then $Z^{<-}[F]=\left\{f: Z(f)_{\varepsilon} F\right\}$ is an ideal [resp. maximal ideal] in $C(X)$.

Hence the mapping $Z$ is one-one from the set of all maximal ideals in $C$ onto the set of all z-ultrafilters.

Definition (1.7) An ideal $I$ in $C(X)$ is called a z-ideal if $Z(f) \varepsilon Z[I]$ implies $f \varepsilon$ I.

Definition (1.8) A z-filter $F$ in $X$ is called a prime z-filter if $F$ has the following property : whenever the union of two zero sets belongs to $F$, then at least one of them belongs to $F$.

Definition (1.9) An ideal I in $C(X)$ or $C^{*}(X)$ is said to be fixed if n $\mathrm{Z}[\mathrm{I}] \neq \phi$. Otherwise I is said to be free .

Theorem (1.10)
(a) The fixed maximal ideals in $C(X)$ are precisely the sets

$$
M_{p}=\{f \varepsilon C: f(p)=0\} \quad(p \varepsilon X)
$$

The ideals $M_{p}$ are distinct for distinct $p$. For each $p, C / M_{p}$ is isomorphic with the real field $R$; in fact, the mapping $M_{p}(f) \longrightarrow f(p)$ is the unique isomorphism of $C / M_{p}$ onto $R$.
(b) The fixed maximal ideals in $C^{*}(X)$ are precisely the sets

$$
M_{p}^{*}=\left\{f \varepsilon C^{*}: f(p)=0\right\} \quad(p \varepsilon X)
$$

The ideals $M_{p}^{*}$ are distinct for distinct $p$. For each $p, C^{*} / M_{p}^{*}$ is isomorphic with the real field $R$; in fact, the mapping $M_{p}^{*}(f) \longrightarrow f(p)$ is the unique isomorphism of $C^{*} / M_{p}^{*}$ onto $R$.

Definition (1.11) For $p \in X, \quad$ let $O_{p}$ denote the set of all $f$ in $C$ for which $Z(f)$ is a neighbourhood of $p$. If $M_{p}=O_{p}$, then $p$ is called a P-point of X .

Remark (1.12) $p \varepsilon X$ is a P-point of $X$ if and only if every $G_{\delta}$ containing p is a neighbourhood of p .

Remark (1.13)
(a) For $p \in X, M_{p}$ is the only maximal ideal (fixed or free) containing $0_{p}$
(b) If $P$ is a prime ideal in $C$, and $P \subset M_{p}$, then $P \leadsto O_{p}$.

Definition (1.14) By a compactification of a space $X$, we mean a compact space in which $X$ is dense.

Theorem (1.15) Every space $X$ has a Stone-Cech compactification $\beta X$ with the following equivalent properties :
(1) (Stone) Every continuous mapping $\tau$ from $X$ into any compact space Y has a continuous extension $\bar{\tau}$ from $B X$ into $Y$.
(2) (Stone-Cech) Every function $f$ in $C^{*}(X)$ has an extension to a function $f^{\beta}$ in $C(\beta X)$.
(3) (Cech) Any two disjoint zero sets in $X$ have disjoint closures in $\beta X$.
(4) For any two zero sets. $Z_{1}$ and $Z_{2}$ in $X$,

$$
\mathrm{Cl}_{\beta X}\left(\mathrm{Z}_{1} \cap \mathrm{Z}_{2}\right)=\mathrm{Cl}_{\beta X} \mathrm{Z}_{1} \cap \mathrm{Cl}_{\beta X} \mathrm{z}_{2}
$$

(5) If $X$ is dense and $C^{*}$-embedded in $T$, then $X \in T \subset \in X$.
(6) If $X$ is dense and $C^{*}$-embedded in $T$, then $\beta T=\beta X$. Furthermore, $\beta \mathrm{X}$ is unique, in the following sense : if a compactification T of X satisfies any one of the listed conditions, then there exists a homeomorphism of $\beta X$ onto $T$ that leaves $X$ pointwise fixed.

Remark (1.16)
(1) For $S \subset X . S$ is $C^{*}$-embedded in $X$ if and only if $C 1_{B X} S=\beta S$.
(2) The mapping $f \longrightarrow f^{\beta}$ is an isomorphism of $C^{*}(X)$ onto $C(\beta X)$.

Theorem (1.17) The maximal ideals in $C^{*}(X)$ are precisely the sets

$$
M^{* P}=\left\{f \varepsilon C^{*}(X): f^{\beta}(p)=0\right\} \quad(p \varepsilon \beta X),
$$

and they are distinct for distinct $p$. The maximal ideals in $C(X)$ are precisely the sets

$$
M^{P}=\left\{f \varepsilon C(X): p \varepsilon C 1_{\beta X} Z_{X}(f)\right\} \quad(p \varepsilon \beta X),
$$

and they are distinct for distinct $p$.

Definition (1.18) Let $M$ be a maximal ideal of $C(X)$. [resp. $\left.C^{*}(X)\right]$. $M$ is said to be a real ideal if $C / M$ [resp. $C^{*} / M$ ] is isomorphic to the real field $R$. If $M$ is not real, then we call $M$ hyper-real .

## Definition (1.19)

(a) $X$ is said to be realcompact if every real maximal ideal in $C(X)$ is fixed.
(b) By a realcompactification of $X$, we mean a realcompact space in which $X$ is dense.
(c) $\quad X$ is said to be pseudocompact if $C(X)=C^{*}(X)$.

Theorem (1.20) $M^{p}$ is hyper-real if and only if $M^{* P}$ contains a unit of C.

Theorem (1.21) Let $v X$ denote the set of all points $p \varepsilon \beta X$ such that $\mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{P}}$ is real. Then
(a) $\quad v \mathrm{X}$ is the largest subspace of $\beta X$ in which $X$ is C-embedded.
(b) $\quad v \mathrm{X}$ is the smallest realcompact space between X and $\beta \mathrm{X}$. In particular, $X$ is realcompact if and only if $X=V X$.

Theorem (1.22) Every (completely regular) space $X$ has a realcompactification $v X$, contained in $\beta X$, with the following equivalent properties.
(1) Every continuous mapping $\tau$ from $X$ into any realcompact space $Y$ has a continuous extension $\tau^{0}$ from $\nu X$ into $Y$. (Necessarily, $\tau 0=\tau \mid \nu X$, where $\bar{\tau}$ is the Stone extension of $\tau$ into $\beta Y$. )
(2) Every function $f$ in $C(X)$ has an extension to a function $f \nu$ in $C(\nu X)$. (Necessarily $f^{\nu}=f^{*} \mid \nu X$.) Furthermore, the space $v X$ is unique,
in the following sense : if a realcompactification $T$ of $X$ satisfies any one of the listed conditions, then there exists a homeomorphism of $v X$ onto $T$ that leaves $X$ pointwise fixed.

Theorem (1.23) If $f \varepsilon C(X)$, and $\alpha R$ denotes the one-point compactification of $R$, then there is a (unique) continuous function $f^{*}: \beta X \rightarrow \alpha R$ which agrees with f on X .

Theorem (1.24) In the ring $C(X)$, and also in $C^{*}(X)$, the prime ideals containing a given prime ideal form a chain. (A chain is a totally ordered sets.)

## CHAPTER II

## B-SUBALGEBRAS

Let $A$ be a commutative ring with an identity. Let $F$ be the set of prime ideals in $A$. For $E \subset A$, define

$$
V(E)=\{P \varepsilon F: E \subset P\}
$$

Note that
(1) $\quad V(\phi)=F$
(2) $\quad V(A)=\phi$
(3) $\quad V\left(\underset{i \varepsilon \ell}{\cup} E_{i}\right)=\cap_{i \in \ell} V\left(E_{i}\right)$
$\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{i}} \subset \mathrm{A}, \quad \mathrm{i} \varepsilon \ell$, where $\ell$ is an index set.
(4) $\quad V(E \cap F)=V(E) \cup V(F)$ ECA, FCA.

Therefore the V's determine a topology on F. This topology is called the hull-kernel topology.

$$
\text { Now for } a \varepsilon \mathrm{~A}, \text { define }
$$

$$
V(a)=\{P \varepsilon F: a \varepsilon P\}
$$

and let

$$
F_{a}=F-V(a)
$$

Theorem (2.1)
(i) $\left\{F_{a}: a \in A\right\}$ is a basis of open sets for $F$ with the hull-kernel topology.
(ii) $F$ is compact.

Proof : (i) Let $B$ be a closed subset in $F$, then $B=V(E)$ for some $E \subset A$. Now $P \varepsilon F-B$ if and only if $P \notin B$ if and only if $E \not \subset P$ if and only if there exists a $\varepsilon E$ such that $a \notin P$ if and only if there exists $\cdot \mathrm{a} \varepsilon \mathrm{E}$ such that $\mathrm{P} \in F_{a}$. Thus $F-B=\bigcup_{a \in E} F_{a}$.
(ii) Suppose $F=\bigcup_{a \in E} F_{a}, E \subset A$. Let $I=(E)=$ ideal generated
by E. We claim $I=A$. Suppose $I \neq A$, then by Zorn's lemma $I \subset P$ for some $P \in F$, then $P \in F_{a}$ for some $a \varepsilon E \ldots$. Hence $a \notin P$. But a $\varepsilon E \subset I \subset P$, contradicting $a \notin \mathrm{P}$. Therefore we must have $\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{A}$. So $1=\sum_{i=1}^{r} b_{i} a_{i}, a_{i} \varepsilon E, b_{i} \varepsilon A \cdot$ Now for $P \varepsilon F$, since $1 \notin P$, there exists $\mathbf{i}, 1 \leq \mathbf{i} \leq n$ such that $a_{i} \notin P$. It follows that $P \varepsilon F_{a_{i}}$. This proves that

$$
F=F_{a_{1}} \cup \cdots \cup F_{a_{n}}
$$

and $F$ is compact.

Notation (2.2) Let $M_{A}$ denote the collection of maximal ideals in $A$ endowed with the hull-kernel topology.

Definition (2.3) By a subalgebra $A$ of $C(X)$, we mean a subalgebra in the usual sense which contains the constant functions.

$$
M_{A}^{p}=\left\{f \varepsilon A:(f g)^{*}(p)=0 \text { for all } g \varepsilon \dot{A}\right\}
$$

where $f^{*}$ maps $\beta X$ into the one point compactification of $R$ as stated in 1.23. Let

$$
G_{A}=\left\{M_{A}^{p}: p \varepsilon \beta X\right\}
$$

Theorem (2.4) $\quad M_{A}^{P}$ is a prime ideal in. $A, p \varepsilon \beta X$.

Proof : Since $0 \varepsilon M_{A}^{P}$ and $1 \notin M_{A}^{p}$, we see that $M_{A}^{p} \neq \phi$ and $M_{A}^{p} \neq A$. Obviously $M_{A}^{p}$ is an ideal in $A$. To prove that $M_{A}^{p}$ is prime, it suffices to show that if $f, g \varepsilon A$ with $f, g \notin M_{A}^{p}$; then $f g \notin M_{A}^{p}$. Now let $f, g \varepsilon A$, choose $h, k \varepsilon A$ such that $(f h)^{*}(p) \neq 0$ and $(g k)^{*}(p) \neq 0$. Then (fghk)* $(p) \neq 0$. Thus $f g \& M_{A}^{P}$.

Definition (2.5) Let $\tau_{A}: \beta X \longrightarrow G_{A}$ be such that $\tau_{A}(p)=M_{A}^{P} . A$ is said to be a $\beta$-subalgebra of $C(X)$ if $\tau_{A}$ is a homeomorphism of $\beta X$ onto $M_{A}$.

Remark (2.6) $\quad C^{*}(X)$ and $C(X)$ are $\beta$-subalgebras of $C(X)$.

For $f \varepsilon A$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{A}(f) & =\tau_{A}^{<-}\left\{p \in G_{A}: f \varepsilon P\right\} \\
& =\left\{p \varepsilon \beta X: f \in M_{A}^{p}\right\} \\
& =n_{g \in A} Z\left((f g)^{*}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $Z\left((f g)^{*}\right)$ is closed in $\beta X, S_{A}(f)$ is closed in $\beta X$. Note that ${ }^{\tau} A$ is continuous, $\operatorname{since}\left\{\left\{p \varepsilon G_{A}: f \varepsilon P\right\}: f \varepsilon \dot{A}\right\}$ is a base for the closed sets in $G_{A}$.

Definition (2.7) A subalgebra $A$ of $C(X)$ is said to be $\beta$-determining if $\left\{Z\left(f^{*}\right): f \varepsilon A\right\}$ forms a base for the closed sets in $\beta X . A$ is said to be closed under bounded inversion if $f$ is a unit of $A$ whenever f $\varepsilon$ A with $\mathrm{f} \geq 1$.

Definition (2.8) An ideal $I$ in $A$ is said to be absolutely convex if $f \in I$ whenever $f \in A$ and $g \in I$ satisfying $|f| \leq|g|$.

For convenience, we shall abbreviate $M_{A}, M_{A}^{p}, G_{A},{ }^{\tau}{ }_{A}$ and $S_{A}$ to $M, M^{P}, G, \tau$ and $S$, respectively.

Theorem (2.9) Given a subalgebra $A$ of $C(X)$, the following are equivalent.
(1) A is $\beta$-determining
(2) $G$ is Hausdorff and $\tau$ is one-to-one
(3) $\tau$ is a homeomorphism

Proof : (1) implies (2) . Suppose $A$ is $\beta$-determining and let $p, q \varepsilon \beta X$ with $\mathrm{p} \neq \mathrm{q}$. By $[2,6.5(\mathrm{~b})]$, there exists $Z_{1}, Z_{2} \varepsilon \mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{X})$ such that $Z_{1} \cup Z_{2}=X$ and $p \notin C 1_{B X} Z_{1}, q \notin C 1_{\beta X} Z_{2}$. Since $A$ is $\beta$-determining, $\left\{Z\left(f^{*}\right): f \varepsilon A\right\}$ is a base for the closed sets in $\beta X$. So we can choose
f, $g \in A$ such that $p \notin Z\left(f^{*}\right) \supset C 1_{\beta X_{1}}$ and $q \notin Z\left(g^{*}\right) \supset C 1_{\beta X_{2}}$. By the choice above, $f \notin M^{p}$. Thus $M^{p} \varepsilon G-\left\{M^{s} \varepsilon G: f \varepsilon M^{s}\right\}$ which is an open set in $G$. Similarly $M^{q} \varepsilon G-\left\{M^{s} \varepsilon G: g \varepsilon M^{S}\right\}$ which is an open set in $G$. Furthermore by the choice of $f, g$, we see that $f g=0$. Thus $\left\{M^{s} \varepsilon G: f \varepsilon M^{s}\right\} \cup\left\{M^{s} \varepsilon G: g \in M^{s}\right\}=G$. So $\mathcal{G}-\left\{M^{s} \varepsilon G: f \varepsilon M^{s}\right\}$ and $G-\left\{M^{S} \varepsilon G: g \varepsilon M^{S}\right\}$ are disjoint open sets in $G$. Since $p, q$ are arbitrary, $G$ is Hausdorff. Since $M^{p} \neq M^{q}, \tau$ is one-to-one.
(2) implies (3) . It suffices to prove that $\tau$ is closed. Let $F$ be a closed set in $\beta X$. Since $\beta X$ is compact, $F$ is compact. Since $\tau$ is continuous, $\tau[F]$ is compact. Since $G$ is Hausdorff, $\tau[F]$ is closed.
(3) implies (1) . Let $F$ be a closed set in $\beta X$ and $p \varepsilon \beta X$ with $\mathrm{p} \nexists \mathrm{F}$. Since $\tau$ is a homeomorphism, $\{\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{f}): \mathrm{f} \varepsilon \mathrm{A}\}$ is a base for the closed sets in $\beta X$. Thus there exists $f \varepsilon A$ such that $p \notin S(f)$ and $F \subset S(f)$. Since $S(f)=\cap Z\left((f g)^{*}\right),(f g)^{*}(p) \neq 0$ for some $g \varepsilon A$. $g \in A$
Thus $\mathrm{p} \nexists \mathrm{Z}\left(\mathrm{f}^{*}\right) ;$ but $\mathrm{F} \subset \mathrm{S}(\mathrm{f}) \subset \mathrm{Z}\left((\mathrm{fg})^{*}\right)$. This proves that $\left\{\mathrm{Z}\left(\mathrm{f}^{*}\right): \mathrm{f} \varepsilon \mathrm{A}\right\}$ is a base for the closed sets in $\beta X$.

Theorem (2.10) Given a subalgebra $A$ of $C(X)$, the following are equivalent.
(1) A is closed under bounded inversion.
(2) If $I$ is an ideal in $A$, then $\cap_{f \in I} Z\left(f^{*}\right) \neq \phi$.
(3) Every ideal in $A$ is contained in some $M^{P}$.
(4) $\quad M_{A} \subset G_{A}$.
(5) Every $M \varepsilon M_{A}$ is absolutely convex.

Proof : (1) implies (2). Let $I$ be an ideal in $A$. Let $F=\left\{Z\left(f^{*}\right): f \varepsilon I\right\}$. To prove (2), by the compactness of $\beta \mathrm{X}$, it suffices to show that $F$ has the finite intersection property. Let $f_{1}, \cdots, f_{n} \varepsilon I$ and let $g=f_{l}^{2}+\cdots+f_{n}^{2} \varepsilon I$. Then $Z\left(g^{*}\right)=\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} Z\left(f_{i}^{*}\right)$. Suppose $Z\left(g^{*}\right)=\phi$. Then $\left|g^{*}(p)\right|>0$ for all $p \varepsilon \beta X$. Since $\beta X$ is compact, there exists $r>0$ such that $\left|g^{*}(p)\right| \geq r>0$. So $g \geq r$, and $g$ is anit of $A$. Since $g \varepsilon I$ and since $I$ is proper, this is a contradiction. So we must have $Z\left(g^{*}\right)=\phi$.
(2) implies (3) . Let $I$ be an ideal in $A$. Let $p \varepsilon \cap Z\left(f^{*}\right)$. feI We claim that $I \subset M^{P}$. For if $f \varepsilon I$, then $f g \varepsilon I$ for all $g \varepsilon A$. So $(f g)^{*}(p)=0$, for all $g \varepsilon A$. So $f \varepsilon M^{p}$.
(3) implies (4) . Obvious.
(4) implies (5). It suffices to show that $M^{P}$ is absolutely convex. Let $f \varepsilon A$ and $g \varepsilon M^{p}$ satisfying $|f| \leq|g|$. Then $|f h| \leq|g h|$ for all $h \in A$. Since $X$ is dense in $\beta X,|(f h) *| \leq|(g h) *|$ for all $h \varepsilon A$. So $f \varepsilon M^{p}$.
(5) implies (1). Since 1 does not belong to any maximal ideal, it follows that $f$ is a unit of $A$ whenever $f \varepsilon A$ with $f \geq 1$.

Theorem (2.11) Given a subalgebra $A$ of $C(X)$, the following are equivalent.
(1) $A$ is a $\beta$-subalgebra of $C(X)$.
(2) A is $\beta$-determining and closed under bounded inversion.

Proof : Suppose $A$ is a $\beta$-subalgebra of $C(X)$. By 2.9, $A$ is $\beta$-determining. By 2.10, A is closed under bounded inversion.

Conversely suppose (2) holds. By 2.9, $\tau$ is a homeomorphism of $\beta X$ onto $G$. By 2.10, $M \subset G$. Since $G$ is $T_{2}$, no two ideals of $G$ are comparable. So $M=G$. This proves that $A$ is a $\beta$-subalgebra of C(X).

## CHAPTER III

## THE A-POINTS OF $B X-X$

Let $A$ be a $\beta$-subalgebra of $C(X)$. By 2.9 , the family $\{S(f): f \varepsilon A\}$ forms a base for the closed sets in $\beta \mathrm{X}$. Let $\mathrm{X}^{*}$ denote $\beta \mathrm{X}-\mathrm{X}$. For $\mathrm{f} \varepsilon \mathrm{A}$, let $\mathrm{S}^{*}(\mathrm{f})=\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{f}) \mathrm{n} \mathrm{X}^{*}$. Then $\left\{\mathrm{S}^{*}(\mathrm{f}): \mathrm{f} \varepsilon \mathrm{A}\right\}$ is a base for the closed sets in $X^{*}$. For convenience, let us agree that the symbols "C1" , "int" and " 2 " , without subscripts, refer to the topology of X *.

Definition (3.1) A space $X$ is said to have the $G_{\delta}$-property if every nonvoid $G_{\delta}$ subset of $X$ has a nonvoid interior.

Remark (3.2) Since in a completely regular space $X$, every $G_{\delta}$ containing a compact set $S$ contains a zero set containing $S$, it follows that $X$ has the $G_{\delta}$-property if and only if every nonempty zero set in $X$ has a nonempty interior.

The following theorem will be used several times throughout this thesis : Let $Y$ be a nonvoid locally compact Hausdorff space with the $G_{\delta}$-property. If $D$ is a family of at most $K_{\mathcal{1}}$ dense open subsets of $Y$, then $\cap D$ is dense in $Y$. If, in addition, $Y$ has no isolated points, then $|\cap D| \geq 2^{x_{1}} \quad$. $([5,3.2])$.

Definition (3.3) Given a $\beta$-subalgebra $A$ of $C(X)$, a point $p \varepsilon X^{*}$ is said to be an A-point of $X^{*}$ if, for all $f \in A, p \notin \partial S^{*}(f)$.

Remark (3.4)
(1) A point $p \varepsilon X^{*}$ is an A-point of $X^{*}$ if and only if $S^{*}(f)$ is a neighbourhood of $p$ whenever $f \varepsilon A$ and $p \varepsilon S^{*}(f)$.
(2) The set of A-points of $X^{*}$ is precisely $n_{f \varepsilon A}\left(X^{*}-\partial S^{*}(f)\right)$.

Theorem (3.5) $X$ is realcompact if and only if for every $p \varepsilon X^{*}$, there is a $Z \varepsilon Z(\beta X)$ such that $p \varepsilon Z \subset X^{*}$.

Proof : Suppose $X$ is realcompact and $p \varepsilon X^{*}$. Then $M^{p}$ is hyperreal by [2, 8.4]. By 1.20, $M^{* P}$ contains a unit $f$ of $C(X)$. Since $f$ is a unit of $C(X)$, it follows that $Z\left(f^{\beta}\right) \subset X^{*}$. By 1.17, $p \in Z\left(f^{\beta}\right)$. This proves the necessity.

Conversely, let $p \varepsilon X^{*}$. By assumption, there exists $Z(g) \varepsilon Z(\beta X)$ such that $\mathrm{p} \varepsilon \mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{g}) \subset \mathrm{X}^{*}$. Then $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{x}) \neq 0$ for all $\mathrm{x} \varepsilon \mathrm{X}$. So the restriction of $g$ on $X$ is a unit of $C(X)$. Since $g(p)=0, g \varepsilon M^{* P}$. By 1.20, $\mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{P}}$ is hyperreal . This proves that X is real compact.

Theorem (3.6) Suppose $X$ is a locally compact and realcompact space, then $X^{*}$ has the $G_{\delta}$ property.

Proof : By remark 3.2, it suffices to prove that every nonempty zero set $Z$ in $X^{*}$ has nonempty interior. Since $X$ is locally compact, by [2, 6.9(d)], $X$ is open in $\beta X$. So $X^{*}$ is closed. Since $\beta X$ is compact and Hausdorff, $\beta X$ is normal. So $X^{*}$ is $C^{*}$-embedded in $\beta X$ by [2, 3D]. Therefore
$Z=Z(f) \cap X^{*}$ for some $f \varepsilon C(\beta X)$. Let $p \varepsilon Z$. By 3.5, there exists a function $g \varepsilon C(\beta X)$ such that $g(p)=0$ but $g(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \varepsilon X$. Define $h=|f|+|g|$, then $p \varepsilon Z(h) \subset Z \cap X^{*}$. Now let $\left\{x_{\alpha}\right\}$ be a set in $X$ converging to $P$. By continuity of $h,\left\{h\left(x_{\alpha}\right)\right\}$ converges to $h(p)=0$. Obviously we can choose a subsequence $\left\{x_{\alpha_{i}}\right\}$ of distinct points of $\left\{x_{\alpha}\right\}$ such that $h\left(x_{\alpha_{i}}\right) \longrightarrow 0$. By induction, choose disjoint compact neighbourhood $V_{i}$ of $x_{\alpha_{i}}$ such that $\left|h(x)-h\left(x_{\alpha_{i}}\right)\right|<\frac{1}{i}$ for $x \varepsilon v_{i}$. By complete regularity of $X$, there exists a function $w_{i}$ such that $0 \leq w_{i} \leq 1, \quad w_{i}\left(x_{\alpha_{i}}\right)=1, \quad w_{i}\left[x-v_{i}\right]=0 . \quad$ Let $\cdot w=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} w_{i}, \quad w$ is well defined provided that $\left\{x_{\alpha_{i}}\right\}$ has no limit point in $X$; but in fact, $\left\{X_{\alpha_{i}}\right\}$ cannot has a limit point in $X$ by the fact that $h$ is not zero at any point of $X$. Note that $w\left(x_{\alpha_{i}}\right)=1$ for each $i$ and $w(x)=0$ for $x \in X-\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} V_{i}$. Now suppose $w^{\beta}(q) \neq 0$ for some $q \varepsilon X^{*}$, we see that every neighbourhood of $q$ meets infinitely many $V_{i}$ 's. Thus $h(q)=0$. This proves that $x^{*}-\left(Z\left(w^{\beta}\right) \cap x^{*}\right) \subset Z(h)$. Since. $\beta X$ is compact, $\left\{x_{\alpha_{i}}\right\}$ has a limit point $q$ in $\beta X$. As proved already $q \varepsilon X^{*}$. Thus there exists a subsequence $\left\{x_{\alpha_{i_{n}}}\right\}$ of $\left\{x_{\alpha_{i}}\right\}$ such that $w^{\beta}\left(x_{\alpha_{i_{n}}}\right) \longrightarrow w^{\beta}(q)$. But $w^{\beta}\left(x_{\alpha_{i_{n}}}\right)=1$ for all $n$, it follows that $w^{\beta}(q)=1$. So $X^{*}-\left(Z\left(w^{\beta}\right) \cap X^{*}\right) \neq \phi$. Since $Z(h) \subset Z$ and $X^{*}-\left(Z\left(w^{\beta}\right) \cap X^{*}\right)$ is open, this proves the theorem.

Theorem (3.7) If $X$ is realcompact, then $X^{*}$ has no isolated points.

Proof : Suppose $p$ is an isolated point in $X^{*}$. Then there exists a zero set neighbourhood $Z(f)$ of $p$ in $\beta X$ such that $Z(f) \cap X^{*}=\{p\}$. By 3.5, there exists $Z(h) \varepsilon Z(\beta X)$ such that $p \varepsilon Z(h) \subset X^{*}$. So $\{p\}=Z(f) \cap Z(h) \varepsilon Z(\beta X)$. So $\{p\}$ is a zero set in $\beta X$. Since $\{p\}$ is disjoint from $X$, by [2, 9.5], \{p\} contains a copy of $N$. This leads to a contradiction.

Theorem (3.8) Let $X$ be a locally compact and real compact metric space. Let $A$ be a $\beta$-subalgebra of $C(X)$ with $|A|=C$. If, in addition, $X$ is not compact, then $X^{*}$ has a dense subset of $2^{c}$ A-points.

Proof : Let $D=\left\{X^{*}-\partial S^{*}(f): f \varepsilon A\right\}$. Obviously, for each $f \varepsilon A$, $X^{*}-\partial S^{*}(f)$ is an open dense subset of $X^{*}$. By $3.6, X^{*}$ has the $G_{\delta}$ property. By 3.7, $X^{*}$ has no isolated points. Now apply [5, 3.2], we see that $\cap D$ is dense in $X^{*}$ and $|\cap D| \geq 2^{c}$. Since $A$ is a $\beta$-subalgebra of $C(X),\left|X^{*}\right| \leq 2^{|A|}=2^{c}$. So $|\cap D|=2^{c}$. By remark 3.4 (b), ח $D$ is precisely the set of A-points of $X^{*}$.

Theorem (3.9) Let $X$ be a locally compact and realcompact but not compact metric space. Let $\left\{A_{\alpha}: \alpha \varepsilon \Delta\right\}$ be a family of $\beta$-subalgebras of $C(X)$ with $\left|A_{\alpha}\right|=C$ for each $\alpha \in \Delta$ and $|\Delta| \leq C$, then $X^{*}$ has a dense subset of $2^{\mathrm{C}}$ points which are simultaneously $A_{\alpha}$-points for all $\alpha \in \Delta$.

Proof : Let $D=\left\{X^{*}-\partial S_{A_{\alpha}}^{*}(f): f \varepsilon A_{\alpha}, \alpha \varepsilon \Delta\right\}$. Then
$\cap D=\cap_{\alpha \in \Delta} \cap_{f A_{\alpha}}\left(X^{*}-\partial S_{A_{\alpha}}^{*}(f)\right)$ is precisely the set of points of $X^{*}$ that
are similtaneously $A_{\alpha}$-points for all $\alpha \varepsilon \Delta$. Applying [5, 3.2] again, $\cap D$ is dense in $X^{*}$ and $|\cap D| \geq 2^{c}$. Since $A_{\alpha}$ is a $\beta$-subalgebra of $C(X),\left|x^{*}\right| \leq 2^{\left|A_{\alpha}\right|}=2^{c}$. So $|n D|=2^{c}$.

Theorem (3.10) A point in $X^{*}$ is a $C^{*}(X)$-point if and only if it is a P-point of $X^{*}$.

Proof : Since $M^{* P}=\left\{£ \varepsilon C^{*}(X): f^{\beta}(P)=0\right\}$, we see that $S_{C^{*}}(f)=Z\left(f^{\beta}\right)$, $\mathrm{f} \varepsilon \mathrm{C}^{*}(\mathrm{X})$. So $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{C}^{*}}^{*}(\mathrm{f})=\mathrm{X}^{*} \cap \mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{f} \beta)$. Now by definition, a point in $X^{*}$ is a P-point of $X^{*}$ if and only if it is not an element of the $X^{*}$-boundary of any zero set of $X^{*}$, and is a $C^{*}(X)$-point if and only if $p \notin \partial S_{C^{*}}^{*}(f)=$ $=\partial\left(X^{*} \cap Z\left(f^{\beta}\right)\right)$ for all $f \varepsilon C^{*}(X)$. Obviously a P-point is a $C^{*}(X)$-point.

Conversely suppose $p$ is not a P-point. Then there exists $Z_{1} \varepsilon Z\left(X^{*}\right)$ such that p. $\varepsilon \partial Z_{1}$. Let $S$ be a $G_{\delta}-$ set of $\beta X$ such that S $\cap X^{*}=Z_{1}$. By $[2,3.11(b)]$, there exists a $Z_{2} \varepsilon Z(\beta X)$ such that $\mathrm{p} \varepsilon \mathrm{Z}_{2} \subset \mathrm{~S}$. Then $\mathrm{p} \varepsilon \partial\left(\mathrm{Z}_{2} \cap \mathrm{X}^{*}\right)$. This proves that p is not $a$ $c^{*}(X)$-point.

Corollary (3.11)
(1) $\quad B N-N$ has a dense subset of $2^{C} \quad$ P-points.
(2) $\quad \beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C} \quad$ P-points.

Proof : (1) Obviously $N$ is locally compact and realcompact but not compact. Furthermore $\left|C^{*}(N)\right|=C$. Applying 3.8 , $B N-N$ has a dense subset of $2^{c} C^{*}(N)$ points. By $3.10, \beta N-N$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ P-points.
(2) R is obviously locally compact and realcompact but not compact. Since $R$ is separable, $\left|C^{*}(R)\right|=C$. Applying 3.8 and 3.10, P has a dense subset of $2^{\mathrm{C}}$ P-points.

## CHAPTER IV

## REMOTE POINTS IN $\beta$ R

In this chapter, we shall turn our attention to the remote points in the space $\beta R$, the Stone Čech compactification of the space $\dot{R}$ of real numbers. As in [2], we associate with each maximal ideal $M^{P}$ in $C(R)$ the z-ultrafilter

$$
A^{p}=\left\{Z(f): f \varepsilon M^{p}\right\}=\left\{Z \varepsilon Z(R): p \varepsilon C 1_{\beta R} Z\right\}
$$

For $p \varepsilon \beta R$, we denote by $0^{p}$ the set of all $f \varepsilon C(R)$ for which $C 1_{\beta R} Z(f)$ is a neighbourhood of $p$, i.e.

$$
o^{p}=\left\{f \varepsilon C(R): p \varepsilon \operatorname{int}_{\beta R}{ }^{\mathrm{C}} 1_{\beta R} Z(f)\right\}
$$

Definition (4.1) A point $p \varepsilon \beta R$ is said to be a remote point in $\beta R$ if p is not in the $\beta R$ closure of any discrete subset of $R$.

Theorem (4.2) $\beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ C-points.
$\underline{\text { Proof }: ~ S i n c e ~} R$ is separable, $|C(R)|=C$. By 3.8, it is immediate that $\beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ C-points.

Lemma (4.3) If $Z$ is a closed nowhere dense set in $R$, then there exists a discrete subset $D$ of $R$ such that $D \cap Z=\phi, D U . Z=C 1 D_{R}$.

Proof : Since $Z$ is closed, $R-Z$ is open. As an open set in $R$, $R-Z$ is a union of disjoint open intervals $I_{\alpha}$. For each $I_{\alpha}$, choose a discrete subset $D_{\alpha} \subset I_{\alpha}$ such that the endpoints of $I$ are the only limit points of $D_{\alpha}$. Put $D=U \mathrm{D}_{\alpha}$. Obviously $\mathrm{D} \cap \mathrm{Z}=\phi$ and $\mathrm{D} U \mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{C} 1_{R} \mathrm{D}$.

Theorem (4.4) For $p \varepsilon \beta R$, the following are equivalent :
(1) $p$ is a remote point in $\beta R$.
(2) $\quad A^{p}$ has no nowhere dense member.
(3) $\quad M^{P}=0^{P}$.
(4) $\quad \mathrm{p}$ is a C-point of $\beta R-R$.
(5) $\quad \mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{P}}$ is a minimal prime ideal.
(6) $\quad o^{\mathrm{p}}$ is prime.

Proof : (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2) . Suppose that $A^{P}$ has a nowhere dense member $Z$. By 4.3, there is a discrete subset $D$ of $R$ such that $Z \cap D=\phi$ and $Z \cup D=C 1_{R} D$, so that $C 1_{\beta R} Z \subset C 1_{\beta R} D$. Hence $p \varepsilon C 1_{\beta R} Z \subset C 1_{\beta R} D$. Therefore $p$ is not a remote point in $\beta R$.
(2) $=>(1)$. Suppose $p$ is not a remote point in $\beta R$. Then there is a discrete subset $D$ of $R$ such that $p \in C 1_{\beta R} D$. Clearly $C 1_{\beta R} D \varepsilon A^{p}$. We claim int $_{R} C_{R} D=\phi$. Suppose, on the contrary, that int ${ }_{R} C 1_{R} D \neq \phi$. Then (int $R_{R} 1_{R}$ ) $\cap D \neq \phi$. Let $q \varepsilon\left(\right.$ int $\left._{R} C 1_{R} D\right) \cap D$. Since $D$ is discrete, $q$ is open in $D$. So $\{q\}=D \cap G$ for some open set $G$ in $R$. Obviously

either a point of $D$ or a limit point of $D$. If $r$ is a point of $D$, then $r \in D$ O. Hence $r=q$. If $r$ is a limit point of $D$, then $G \cap D$ contains infinitely many points of $D$. This contradicts the fact that $D \cap G$ is a singleton set. So this cannot be the case, and $\{q\}=G \cap\left(i n t_{R} C 1_{R} D\right)$. This proves that $\{q\}$ is open in $R$, i.e. $q$ is an isolated point in $R$. But this cannot be true. So we must have the fact that int ${ }_{R} C l_{R} D=\phi$. So $A^{P}$ has a nowhere dense member.
(2) $\Rightarrow$ (3) . Suppose that $A^{p}$ has no nowhere dense member. Let $f \varepsilon M^{P}$. Since $C l_{R}(R-Z(f))$ is a closed set in $R$, by Urysohn's lemma there exists a function $g \in C(R)$ such that $Z(g)=C 1_{R}(R-Z(f))$. Thus $R=Z(f) \cup Z(g)$. We claim $p \notin C 1_{\beta R} Z(g)$. Suppose not, then
 $=C 1_{\beta R}(Z(f) \cap Z(g))=C 1_{\beta R} \partial_{R} Z(f)$. This proves that $\partial_{R} Z(f) \varepsilon A^{p}$. Since $\partial_{R} 2(f)$ is nowhere dense, this contradicts our hypothesis that $A^{p}$ has no nowhere dense member. So $p \notin C 1_{\beta R} Z(g)$. So $p \varepsilon \beta R-C 1_{\beta R} Z(g) \subset C 1_{\beta R} Z(f)$. Since $C 1_{\beta R} Z(g)$ is closed, $\beta R-C 1_{\beta R} Z(g)$ is open. This proves that $C 1_{\beta R} Z(f)$ is a neighbourhood of $p$. Thus $f \varepsilon 0^{p}$.
(3) $\Rightarrow$ (4) . Suppose that $0^{p}=M^{p}$. For any $f \in C(R)$ and $p \varepsilon S_{c}^{*}(f)=S_{c}(f) \cap(\beta R-R)=\left(C 1_{\beta R} Z(f)\right) \cap(\beta R-R)$, then $f \varepsilon M^{p}$, whence $f \varepsilon 0^{p}$. Thus $p \varepsilon$ int ${ }_{\beta R} C l_{\beta R} Z(f)$. Thus $p$ is in the interior of $S_{c}^{*}(f)$ in $\beta R-R$. By remark 3.4, (1), this proves that $p$ is a C-point of $\beta R-R$.
(4) $\Rightarrow$ (2) . Suppose that $p$ is a C-point of $\beta R-R$, and let $Z \varepsilon A^{p}$. We shall show that $Z$ is not nowhere dense. Since $Z \varepsilon A^{p}$,
$p \in C 1_{\beta R} Z$ : So $p \in\left(C 1_{\beta R} Z\right)(\beta R-R)=S_{c}(f) \cap(\beta R-R)=S_{c}^{*}(f)$. Since $p$ is a C-point, by remark 3.4, (1), $p$ is in the interior of $S_{c}^{*}(f)$ in $\beta R-R$. Thus $p \varepsilon$ int ${ }_{\beta R} C l_{\beta R} Z$. Obviously (int ${ }_{\beta R} C 1_{\beta R} Z$ ) $\cap R \neq \phi$ and is a subset of $Z$. This proves that $Z$ is not nowhere dense.
(2) => (5) . Assume (2) . Suppose, on the contrary, that $M^{P}$ is a nonminimal prime ideal. Let $I$ be a prime ideal properly contained in $M^{P}$. Choose $Z \in Z\left[M^{P}\right]-Z[I]=A^{P}-Z[I]$. Since $R=Z U C I(R-Z)$ and $Z \not Z Z[I]$, it follows that $C 1(R-Z) \varepsilon Z[I]$. So $C 1(R-Z) \varepsilon M^{p}$. Thus $\partial_{R} Z=Z \cap C 1(R-Z) \varepsilon M^{p}$. Obvious $1 \mathrm{y} \quad \partial_{R} Z$ is nowhere dense. This contradicts our hypothesis. So $\mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{P}}$ is a minimal prime ideal.
(5) => (3) . Assume (5). By [2, 2.8], $0^{P}$ is the intersection of all the prime ideals contained in $M^{p}$. Since $M^{p}$ is a minimal prime ideal, it follows that $M^{P}=0^{p}$.
(3) => (6) . Obvious .
(6) => (5) . Suppose $M^{\mathrm{P}}$ is not a minimal prime ideal. Since (5) and (2) are equivalent, it follows that $A^{P}$ has a nowhere dense member Z. Choose disjoint discrete subsets $D_{1}, D_{2}$ of $R$ such that $D_{i}^{\prime}=Z$, $i=1,2$, where $D_{i}^{\prime}$ denotes the derived set of $D_{i}$ in $R$. Let $G_{i}=C 1_{R} D_{i}$, $i=1,2$. Obviously $C l_{R}\left(G_{i}-Z\right) \varepsilon A^{p} . B y[4,4.2], A^{p}$ has a prime z-filter $F_{i}$ containing $G_{i}$ but not $Z$, for $i=1,2$. Since $G_{1} \cap G_{2}=Z$, we see that $F_{1}$ and $F_{2}$ are incomparable. Thus $\mathrm{z}^{<-}\left[F_{1}\right]$ and $\mathrm{z}^{<-}\left[F_{2}\right]$ are incomparable. Since $F_{i}$ is a prime z-filter in $A^{p}, Z^{<-}\left[F_{i}\right]$ is a prime ideal contained in $M^{p}, i=1,2$. By $[2,7.5], Z^{<-}\left[F_{i}\right]$ contains $0^{p}$, $i=1,2$. By 1.23 , we see that $0^{p}$ is not prime.

Theorem (4.5) $\beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ remote points in $\beta R$ :

Proof : Follows immediately from 4.2 and 4.4 .

Theorem (4.6) $\beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ points which are simultaneously remote points in $\beta R$ and $P$-points of $\beta R-R$.

Proof : Apply 3.9 to the family $\left\{C(R), C^{*}(R)\right\}$ of $\beta$-subalgebras of $C(R)$. Then $\beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ points which are simultaneously $C^{*}$-points and C-points of $\beta R-R$. By 3.10, $C^{*}$-points of $\beta R-R$ are precisely the P-points of $\beta R-R$. By 4.4, C-points of $\beta R-R$ are precisely the remotes points in $\beta R$.

Theorem (4.7) $\quad \beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ points which are $P$-points of $\beta R-R$ but not remote points in $\beta R$.

Proof : Let $V$. be a closed neighbourhood in $\beta R$ of any point in $\beta R-R$. Obviously $V \cap R$ is not pseudocompact. Since $V \cap R$ is closed, by [2, 1.18], it is C-embedded in $R$. Thus by [2, 1.20], V $\cap R$ contains a copy $D$ of $N$ which is C-embedded in $R$. Since $D$ is $C^{*}$-embedded in $R$, by 1.16, $\beta D=C 1_{\beta R} D$. Since $V$ is closed in $\beta R$, we see that $D^{*}=\beta D-D=C 1_{\beta R} D-D \subset V \cap R^{*}$. Since $\beta D-D$ is homeomorphic with $\beta N-N$, by 3.11, $\beta D-D$ has $2^{C}$ P-points of $\beta D-D . B y[2,9 \mathrm{M} .2]$, we see that a point in $\beta D-D$ is a P-point of $\beta D-D$ if and only if it is a P-point of $\beta R-R$, that $\beta D-D$ has $2^{C}$ P-points of $\beta R-R$. Since
$D$ is discrete, no point of $\beta D-D$ is a remote point of $\beta R$. Since $V$ is arbitrary, this proves the theorem.

Definition (4.8) A space $X$ is said to be an F-space if every cozero set in $X$ is $C^{*}$-embedded in $X$.

Remark (4.9) By [2, 14.27], $\beta N-N$ is a compact $F$-space and so is $\beta R-R$.

Lemma (4.10) Every infinite compact $F$-space has at least $2^{C}$ non P-points.

Proof : Let $X$ be an infinite compact $F$-space. Since $X$ is infinite, there is a countable discrete subset $D=\left\{d_{n}: n \varepsilon N\right\} . B y[2,14$ N.5], $D$ is $C^{*}$-embedded in $X$. So $C 1 X_{X}=\beta D$ by 1.16 . Let $f \varepsilon C^{*}(X)$ be such that $f\left(d_{n}\right)=n^{-1}, n \varepsilon N$. Then for any $p \varepsilon D^{*}=\beta D-D=C 1_{X} D-D$, $p \varepsilon Z(f)$, . but obviously $Z(f)$ is not a neighbourhood of $p$. Thus $p$ is not a P-point . Since $|\beta D-D|=2^{C}$, this proves the lemma.

Theorem (4.11) $\quad \beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ points which are neither remote points in $\beta R$ nor $P$-points of $\beta R-R$.

Proof : Let $V$ be a closed neighbourhood in $\beta R$ of any point in $\beta R-R$. As in the proof of $4.7, V \cap R^{*}$ contains a copy $D^{*}=\beta D-D$ of $\beta N-N$. By remark 4.9, $D^{*}$ is a compact F-space. By 4.10, $D^{*}$ has at least $2^{\text {C }}$ non P-points of $\mathrm{D}^{*}$. So by [2, 9M.2], $\mathrm{D}^{*}$ has at least $2^{\mathrm{C}}$ non P-points of $\beta R-R$. Since $D$ is discrete, no point of $\beta D-D$ is a remote point of $\beta$. This proves the theorem.

Theorem (4.12) $\quad \beta R-R$ has a dense subset of $2^{C}$ points which are remote points in $\beta R$ but not $P-$ points of $\beta R-R$.

Proof : Let $V$ be a closed neighbourhood in $\beta R$ of any point in $\beta R-R$. By [5, 5.5], there exists an infinite compact set $\Delta$ of remote points in $\beta R$ such that $\Delta \subset V \cap(\beta R-R)$. Since $\beta R-R$ is an $F$-space by 4.9, the $C^{*}$-embedded subset $\Delta$ is also an $F$-space by [2, 14.26]. By 4.10, $\Delta$ has $2^{\text {c }}$ non P-points. By [2, 4L.2], each of these points is a non P-point of" $\beta R-R$. This proves the theorem.

## CHAPTER V

## PRIME IDEAL STRUCTURE AND REMOTE POINTS

Definition (5.1) Let $P(X)$ denote the family of all prime z-filters on X. A prime $z$-filter is said to be minimal if it is a minimal element of $P(X)$. For $A, B \in P(X)$, if $A \subset B$, we say that $A$ is a predecessor of $B$ and that $B$ is a successor of $A$. If in addition there is no prime z-filter between them, we use the term immediate predecessor and immediate successor.

Theorem (5.2) Let $A$ be a prime $z$-filter on $X$. Suppose there exists $Z \varepsilon A$ such that for any zero set $W \notin A, Z U . W \neq X$. Then $A$ is nonminimal .

Proof : For any ECX, let

$$
z(E)=\{Z \varepsilon Z(X): E \subset Z\}
$$

By assumption, we have $z(X-Z) \subset A$. Now let

$$
B=\{W \varepsilon Z(X): z(W-Z) \subset A\}
$$

Since $X \in B, B \neq \phi$. Furthermore $B$ has the following properties :
(i) $B$ is closed under supersets : Let $W \varepsilon B$ and let $V \varepsilon Z(X)$ such that WCV. Obviously $z(V-Z) \subset z(W-Z)$ and hence $z(V-Z) \subset A$.

Thus $V \in B$.
(ii) for any $W_{1}, W_{2} \in Z(X)$, if $W_{i} \notin B$ for $i=1,2$, then $W_{1} \cup W_{2} \notin B$ : choose $V_{i} \varepsilon z\left(W_{i}-Z\right)-A$ for $i=1,2$. Since $A$ is prime, $V_{1} U V_{2} \notin A$. On the other hand, it is obvious that $V_{1} \cup V_{2} \varepsilon z\left(W_{1} \cup W_{2}-Z\right)$ and by definition of $B, W_{1} \cup W_{2} \notin B$.

Now applying Zorn's lemma, there exists a z-filter $F$ which is maximal among the z-filters contained in $B$. Note that $Z \notin F$. Furthermore, for any $W \in F, W \varepsilon z(W-Z) \subset A$, so that $W \varepsilon A$. Thus $F \subset A$, $F \neq A$. Finally we shall prove that $F$ is prime. Let $Z_{1}, Z_{2} \varepsilon Z(X)$ with $Z_{1} \cup Z_{2} \in F$. Suppose $z_{i} \notin F$ for $i=1,2$. By the maximality of $F$, there is $W_{i} \in F$ such that $W_{i} \cap z_{i} \notin B$, for $i=1,2$. Setting $W=W_{1} \cap W_{2}$, obviously $W \cap\left(Z_{1} \cup Z_{2}\right) \varepsilon F$. Since $B$ is closed under supersets, $W \cap z_{i} \notin B, i=1,2$. By property (ii) of $B$, we see that $W \cap\left(Z_{1} \cup Z_{2}\right) \notin B$. Thus $W \cap\left(Z_{1} \cup Z_{2}\right) \notin F$, and this leads to a contradiction. Thus we must have that $F$ is prime, and hence $F$ is an immediate predecessor of $A$. So $A$ is non-minimal.

Theorem (5.3) For each $p \dot{\varepsilon} \beta X$, every prime ideal $P$ of $C^{*}(X)$ contained in $M^{* P}$ is comparable with $M^{p} \cap C^{*}$.

Proof : Obviously $M^{P}$ ( $C^{*}$ is a prime ideal contained in $C^{*}$. Choose a minimal prime ideal $J$ such that $J \subset P$. By 1.24 , it. suffices to show that $J \subset M^{p} \subset C^{*}$. To show this, we first pass to the ring $C(\beta X)$ by means of the canonical isomorphism $f \longrightarrow f^{\beta}$ of $C^{*}(X)$ onto $C(\beta X)$, and
then we pass to the family of prime $z$-filters on $\beta X$.

$$
\text { Since } M^{p}=\left\{f \varepsilon C(X): P \varepsilon C_{\beta X} X_{X}(f)\right\} \text {, the prime ideal in }
$$ $C(\beta X)$ corresponding to $M^{p} \cap C^{*}$ is given by

$$
\left(M^{p} \cap C^{*}\right)^{\beta}=\left\{g \varepsilon C(\beta X): p \varepsilon C 1_{\beta X_{X}}(g \mid X)\right\}
$$

we claim $\left(M^{p} \cap C^{*}\right)^{\beta}$ is a z-ideal. Let $Z_{\beta X}(f) \varepsilon Z_{\beta X}\left(\left(M^{p} \cap C^{*}\right)^{\beta}\right)$, then $Z_{\beta X}(f)=Z_{\beta X}(g)$ for some $g \varepsilon C(\beta X)$. Hence $Z_{X}(f \mid X)=Z_{\beta X}(f) \cap X=$ $=Z_{\beta X}(g) \cap X=Z_{X}(g \mid X)$, whence $p \in C 1_{\beta X X} Z_{X}(f \mid X):$ This proves that $f_{\varepsilon}\left(M^{P} \cap C^{*}\right)^{\beta}$ and hence $\left(M^{p} \cap C^{*}\right)^{\beta}$ is a $z$-ideal. Now let us denote the corresponding prime z-filter on $\beta X$ by $K^{p}$; obviously

$$
K^{p}=\left\{Z \varepsilon Z(\beta X): p \varepsilon C 1_{\beta X}(Z \cap X)\right\}
$$

Also by $[2, .14 .7]$, the minimal prime ideal $J^{\beta}$ of $C(\beta X)$ corresponding to $J$ is a z-ideal ; let $B$ denote the corresponding minimal prime z-filter on $\beta X$. Now we are going to show that $B \subset K^{p}$. Let $Z \varepsilon B$. To show that $Z \varepsilon K^{p}$, it suffices to show that $p \varepsilon C l_{\beta X}(Z \cap X)$. Now let $V$ be any zero set neighbourhood of $p$. By [2, 7.15], $V \varepsilon B$ and hence $v \cap Z \varepsilon B$. Since $B$ is minimal, applying theorem 5.2, we can choose a zero set $W$ not in $B$ such that $(V \cap Z) U W=\beta X$. If $\operatorname{int}_{\beta X}(V \cap Z)=\phi$, then $W$ is dense in $\beta X$ and hence $W=\beta X$. Thus $W \in B$, but this is impossible. So we see that $\operatorname{int}(V \cap Z) \neq \phi$, and $(V \cap z) \cap x \neq \phi$, whence $\mathrm{p} \varepsilon \mathrm{Cl}_{\beta X}(\mathrm{Z} \cap \mathrm{X})$ and $Z \varepsilon K^{p}$. Thus $B \subset K^{p}$ and hence $J \subset M^{p} \cap C^{*}$.

Definition (5.4) If $Y \subset X$ and $F$ is a $z$-filter on $Y$, it is clear that

$$
F^{\#}=\{Z \varepsilon Z(X): Z \cap Y \varepsilon F\}
$$

is a z-filter on $X$; it is called the $z$-filter induced on $X$ by $F$. If $Y \subset X$ and $F$ is a z-filter on $X$, then $F \mid Y=\{Z \cap Y: Z \varepsilon F\}$ is called the trace of $F$ on $Y$.

Definition (5.5) A z-ideal in $C^{*}$ is an ideal $I$ that contains any function that belongs to the same maximal ideals as some function in $I$.

Theorem (5.6) If $Y$ is $C^{*}$-embedded in $X$ and $F$ is a prime z-filter on $X$ such that every member of $F$ meets $Y$, then $F \mid Y$ is a prime z-filter on Y .

Proof : It is clear that $F \mid Y$ is a z-filter on $Y$. To show that $F \mid Y$ is prime, it suffices to show that for any $Z, W \in Z(Y)$ with $Z U W=Y$, at least one of them belongs to $F \mid Y$. Since $Y$ is $C^{*}$-embedded in $X$, we can choose $S, T \varepsilon Z(X)$ such that $Z=S \cap Y, W=T \cap Y$. Since $F$ is prime and $F \subset(F \mid Y)^{\#}$, it follows that $(F \mid Y)^{\#}$ is prime. Since (S UT) ก $Y=Z U W=Y$, by definition of $(F \mid Y)^{\#}$ we see that $S \cup T \varepsilon(F \mid Y)^{\#}$. Thus at least one of $S, T$ belongs to $(F \mid Y)^{\#}$, and whence at least one of $Z, W$ belongs to $F \mid Y$. Hence $F \mid Y$ is prime.

Review (5.7) In the rest of this chapter, we consider the real line $R$ only. By the Stone-Čech compactification theorem and [2, 2.12], we see that the prime z-ideals contained in $M^{* P}$ are in order preserving correspondence with the prime z-filters on $\beta X$ contained in $A_{\beta R}^{P}$, by means of the mapping $P \rightarrow Z\left[P^{\beta}\right]$. Under this mapping $M^{p} \cap C^{*} \longrightarrow K^{p}$ (see theorem 5.3), where

$$
K^{P}=\left\{Z \varepsilon Z(\beta R): p \varepsilon C 1_{\beta R}(Z \cap R)\right\}
$$

Since $R$ is locally, compact, it follows that $\beta R-R$ is a zero set in $\beta X$ and is $C^{*}$-embedded in $\beta R$. Obviously .there is a bounded unit of $C(R)$ that belongs to $M^{* P}$ for every $p \varepsilon \beta R-R$. Thus $M^{p} \cap C^{*} \neq M^{*} P$ if and only if $p \in \beta R-R$.

Theorem (5.8) For any $p \varepsilon \beta R$, the family of prime z-filters on $\beta R$ contained in $K^{p}$ is in one-to-one corresponding with the family of prime z-filters on $R$ contained in $A^{p}$.

Proof : Let $P$ be a prime $z$-filter contained in $K^{p}$, then every member of $P$ meets $R$. By theorem 5.6, $P \mid R=\{Z \cap R: Z \varepsilon P\}$ is a prime z-filter on $R$. Since $P \subset K^{P}$, it follows that $P \mid R \subset A^{p}$. If $B$ is a prime z-filter on $R$ contained in $A^{P}$, obviously the induced prime z-filter

$$
B^{\#}=\{Z \varepsilon Z(\beta R): Z \cap R \in B\}
$$

is contained in $K^{p}$ and $B^{\#} \mid X=B$. Hence the mapping $P \longrightarrow P \mid X$ for $P \subset K^{p}$ is onto the family of prime z-filters of $C(R)$ contained in $A^{p}$.

To prove that the mapping is one to one, it suffices to show that $P=(P \mid X)^{\#}$. Obviously $P \subset(P \mid R)^{\#}$. Conversely for any $Z \varepsilon(P \mid R)^{\#}$, there is $W \varepsilon P$ such that $Z \cap R=W \cap R$. Obviously $W \subset Z U(\beta R-R)$, so that $Z U(\beta R-R) \varepsilon P$. By definition of $K^{P}$, we see that $\beta R-R \notin P$. Since $P$ is prime, we have $Z \in P$. This proves that $(P \mid R)^{\#} \subset P$ and hence $P=(P \mid R)^{\#}$.

Corollary (5.9) The family of prime z-ideals of $C^{*}(R)$ contained in $M^{p} \cap C^{*}$ is order isomorphic with the family of prime z-ideals of $C(R)$ contained in $\mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{P}}$.

Proof : It follows immediately from 5.8, the Stone-Cech compactification theorem and [2, 2.12].

Corollary (5.10) $\mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{P}}$ is a minimal prime ideal of C if and only if $M^{P}$ n $C^{*}$ is a minimal prime ideal of $C^{*}$.

Corollary (5.11) $\quad \mathrm{p}$ is a remote point in $\beta R$ if and only if $M^{p} \cap C^{*}$ is a minimal prime ideal of $C^{*}$.

Theorem (5.12) For any $p \varepsilon \beta R-R$.. The family of prime z-filters on $\beta R$ properly containing $K^{p}$ is in one-to-one correspondence with the family of prime z-filters on $\beta R-R$ contained in $A_{\beta R-R}^{p}$.

Proof : Let $P^{\prime \prime}$ be a prime z-filter on $\beta R$ properly containing $K^{p}$. Obviously every member of $P$ meets $\beta R-R$. So by theroem 5.6, we see that the trace $P \mid(\beta R-R)$ is a prime z-filter on $\beta R-R$. Since $P \subset A_{\beta R}^{p}$, it follows that $P(\beta R-R) \subset A_{\beta R-R}^{P}$. Let $B$ be a prime z-filter on $\beta R-R$ contained in $A_{B R-R}^{P}$. The induced z-filter

$$
B^{\#}=\{Z \varepsilon Z(\beta R): Z \cap(\beta R-R) \varepsilon B\}
$$

is clearly prime and $B^{\#} \mid(\beta R-R)=\dot{B}$. Since $\beta R-R \notin K^{p}$ and $\beta R-R \varepsilon B^{\#}$, it follows from theorem 5.3 that $B^{\#}$ properly contains $K^{p}$. This proves that the mapping $P \longrightarrow P \mid(\beta R-R)$, for $K^{P} \subset P$ is onto the family of prime z-filters on $\beta R-R$ contained in $A_{\beta R-R}^{P}$. Finally we are going to show that it is one-to-one . It suffices to show that $P=(P \mid(\beta R-R))^{\#}$. Obviously $P \subset(P \mid(\beta R-R))^{\text {\# }}$. Now let $Z \varepsilon(P \mid(\beta R-R))^{\#}$, then there exists $W \in P$ such that $Z \cap(\beta R-R)=W \cap(\beta R-R)$. We claim $\beta R-R \varepsilon P$. Suppose not, then the z-ideal $P$ in $C^{*}(R)$ corresponding to $P$ contains no unit of $C(R)$. Let $f \varepsilon P$ and let $V$ be a zero set neighbourhood of $p$ in $\beta R$. Since $p^{\beta}$ is prime and is contained in $A_{\beta R}^{p}$, by $[2,4 \mathrm{I} .4]$, it follows that $\mathrm{V} \varepsilon \mathrm{Z}\left[\mathrm{P}^{\beta}\right]$. Thus $\mathrm{V} \cap \mathrm{Z}\left(\mathrm{f}^{\beta}\right) \varepsilon \mathrm{Z}\left[\mathrm{P}^{\beta}\right]$ and hence $V \cap Z(f) \varepsilon Z[P]$. Since $P$ contains no unit of $C(R), V \cap Z(f) \neq \phi$. Hence $p \in C l_{\beta R^{2}} Z(f)$ and therefore $f \varepsilon \cdot M^{P}$. This proves that $P \subset M^{P} \cap C^{*}$, i.e. $P$ is contained in $K^{p}$, but this is impossible. So we.must have $\beta R-R \varepsilon P$ : Thus $Z \cap(\beta R-R)=W \cap(\beta R-R) \varepsilon P$ and hence $Z \varepsilon P$. This proves that $(P \mid(\beta R-R))^{\#} \subset P$, and hence the mapping is one to one.

Definition (5.13) The z-filter generated by a z-filter $F$ and a zero set $Z$ that meets every member of $F$ is denoted by ( $F, Z$ ) . Obviously

$$
(F, Z)=\{W \varepsilon Z(X): \text { for some } F \varepsilon F, F \cap Z \subset W\}
$$

Remark (5.14) In the last part of the proof of 5.12 , we showed that for any $p \varepsilon \beta R-R$, a prime z-filter contained in $A_{\beta R}^{P}$ properly contains $K^{p}$ if and only if it contains the zero set $\beta R-R$. This means that $K^{p}$ has an immediate successor $\left(\mathrm{K}^{\mathrm{P}}\right)^{+}$in the family of prime z-filters on $\beta R$, generated by $K^{p}$ and the zero set $\beta R-R$, i.e. $\left(K^{p}\right)^{+}=\left(K^{p}, \beta R-R\right)$. Furthermore, according to the construction of the one to one onto mapping in theorem 5.12, we note that $\left(K^{\mathrm{P}}\right)^{+}=\left(\mathrm{Z}\left[\mathrm{O}_{\beta \mathrm{R}-\mathrm{R}}^{\mathrm{p}}\right]^{\#}\right.$.

Theorem (5.15) ( $\left.Z\left[0_{\beta R}^{p}\right], \beta R-R\right)=\left(Z\left[0_{\beta R-R}^{p}\right]\right)^{\#}$. Hence $\left(Z\left[0_{\beta R}^{p}, \beta R-R\right)=\right.$ $=\left(K^{p}\right)^{+}$, and the immediate successor of $M^{p} \cap C^{*}$ in the family of prime z-ideals of $C^{*}(R)$ consists of all functions $f$ such that $f^{\beta}$ vanishes on a neighbourhood of $p$ in $\beta R-R$.

Proof : For any $Z \in\left(Z\left[0_{\beta R}^{p}\right], \beta R-R\right)$, there exists $W \varepsilon Z\left[0_{\beta R}^{P}\right]$ such that $W \cap(\beta R-R) \subset Z$. Since $W \cap(\beta R-R) \varepsilon Z\left[0_{\beta R-R}^{p}\right]$, it follows that $Z \cap(\beta R-R) \varepsilon Z\left[0_{\beta R-R}^{p}\right]$. Thus $Z \varepsilon\left(Z\left[0_{\beta R-R}^{p}\right]\right)^{\#}$. Conversely for any $Z \varepsilon\left(Z\left[0_{\beta R-R}^{p}\right]\right)^{\#}$, then $Z \cap(\beta R-R) \varepsilon Z\left[0_{\beta R-R}^{p}\right]$. This means that $Z \cap(\beta R-R)$ is a zero set neighbourhood of $p \varepsilon \beta R-R$ in $\beta R-R$. So there is $W \in Z\left[0_{\beta R}^{p}\right]$ such that $W \cap(\beta R-R) \subset Z \cap(\beta R-R)$. Thus
$W \cap(\beta R-R) \subset Z$, and $Z \varepsilon\left(Z\left[0_{\beta R}^{p}\right], \beta R-R\right):$

Corollary (5.16) For any $p \varepsilon \beta R-R, p$ is a P-point of $\beta R-R$ if and only if $M^{* P}$ is the immediate successor of $M^{P} \cap C^{*}$ in the family of prime z-ideals of $C^{*}(X)$.

Corollary (5.17) For any $p \varepsilon \beta R-R$, the family of prime z-ideals of $C^{*}(R)$ contained in $M^{* P}$ consists of just the two ideals $M^{* P}$ and $M^{P} \cap C^{*}$ if and only if $p$ is both a remote point in $\beta R$ and a P-point of $\beta R-R$.

Theorem (5.18) $\quad p$ is a remote point in $\beta R$ if and only if the prime ideals contained in $M^{P}$ form a chain.

Proof : If $p$ is a remote point in $\beta R$, then $M^{p}$ is a minimal prime ideal and hence the necessity follows immediately.

Conversely, suppose that the prime ideals contained in $M^{p}$ form a chain $C$ : By $[2,2.8] \quad 0^{p}=\dot{C} C$. To show that $p$ is a remote point of $\beta R-R$; it suffices to show that $0^{P}=\cap C$ is prime. Now let $\mathrm{a} \ddagger \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{b} \notin \mathrm{C}$. Then there exists $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{J} \varepsilon \mathcal{C}$ such that $\mathrm{a} \notin \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{b} \notin \mathrm{J}$. Since $C$ is a chain, it follows that $P \subset J$, say. Thus $b \notin P$. Since $P$ is prime, $a b \not \ddagger P$. Hence $a b \notin \cap C$. This proves that $0^{P}$ is prime.

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